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ABSTRACT

Two views on current international communication are presented--that of an American academician, and that of an Indian journalist. John Lent traces the rise of development journalism and development communication from the point of view of those who believe that individual freedom of expression should be treated as an inviolable right. Narinder Aggarwala, sympathetic to the collectivist orientation of many Third World states, proposes a path of accommodation and compromise. Also in this issue is an article discussing the Indian teacher education program developed for the Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE). (Author/STS)

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COMMUNICATIONS AND DEVELOPMENT:

TWO VIEWS

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Communications and Development: Two Views

Many interrelated communications issues have been debated in international forums in the last few years: the free flow of information across borders, dominance and dependence in international communications, the role of communications in promoting national development, and freedom of expression.

Each of these issues bears directly on the use and the effectiveness of development communications. News from abroad unquestionably affects our beliefs and knowledge about development — regardless of where we live. Developing countries expect the West to be sensitive to Third World problems. At the same time, they expect their own citizens to adopt positive and supportive attitudes toward national development efforts. When such national goals conflict with individual rights, the issue of freedom of expression naturally comes into play.

Two of many possible views on current international communication issues are presented here — one that of an American academic, the other that of an Indian journalist. John Lent traces the rise of development journalism and development communication from the point of view of those who hold that individual freedom of expression should be treated as an inviolable right. Narinder Aggarwala, sympathetic to the collectivist orientation of many Third World states, proposes a path of accommodation and of compromise on the issues that underlie the international debate on communications.

While the views expressed here are those of the authors only, the issues addressed are of concern to all who plan, implement, or evaluate projects in which communication media and technology are applied to development problems.

Development Communication: Watch Dog or Lap Dog?

The systematic use of communication to support national development grew out of the fairly detached and in-depth development journalism of the 1960s and has swept through the Third World in the last decade. "Development Communication" is a major government tool used in numerous developing countries. It is the basis for academic programs in Asia and the Caribbean and many regional organizations, publications, and conferences are dedicated to its propagation. But development communication is also the bane of the International Press Institute (IPI) and the Inter-American Press Association (IAPA), traditional defenders of press freedom.

Exactly how did development journalism evolve into development communication? What has happened to government-media relationships and traditional press freedom in the Third World in the wake of this evolution? How are the mass media being used to shape and spread national ideologies? How do supranational agencies influence national communication policy? These questions are now before us.

Development journalism's Asian founders believed that to get to the heart of development issues, journalists had to be versed in economics. As director of the Philippine Press Institute from 1963, Juan Mercado first sponsored seminars on development topics and implemented news policies in support of development reporting. Alan Chalkley was also laying the groundwork for development journalism in the mid-sixties. Elsewhere in Asia, others such as Chanchal Sarkar, director of the Press Institute of India; Amitabha Chowdhury, head of IPI's Asian Programme; Maasaki Kasagi of *Nihon Shinbum Kyokai*, and Mochtar Lubis, editor of *Indonesia Raya*, recognized that new approaches to covering Asia were necessary because of the "cumulative effect of the growth of national economies, changes in the character and profile of the audience and, above all, the results of people's experiments and frustrations with new political systems."

Together these men formed the Press Foundation of Asia, an entity endowed by

(Continued on page 2)

Press Freedom: A Third World View

In securing a two-year delay in the decision on the Soviet draft declaration on mass media at the biennial UNESCO General Conference in Nairobi in November, those championing the cause of the "unfettered flow of information" won a pause in an open-ended contest but no more. The issues of free versus controlled and Third World versus Western press are likely to surface again and again at various international forums.

In fact, the Nairobi stay may prove of little value unless it is followed by swift and concerted action to eliminate the causes that have contributed to the growing disaffection (open hostility, in some cases) of Third World leaders with the news media in general, and Western news agencies in particular. It is this disenchantment which is behind the support of some Third World countries for the Soviet proposal making "States responsible for the activities in the international sphere of all mass media under their jurisdiction."

One sure way of not redressing the situation will be to begin with an unqualified denunciation, as "sinister" and "ominous," of the Third World countries' desire to establish and develop national news agencies, leading ultimately to a multinational news agency of developing countries. There is a genuine need for creating a channel through which Third World nations can get news about each other, and the industrialized world, from their own perspective.

At present, Third World countries primarily depend upon four Western news agencies (the Associated Press, United Press International, Reuters and Agence France-Presse) for news about each other. News about Botswana, more often than not, reaches the people of neighboring Zambia through one of the four Western agencies. The selection, the style, the content, the treatment and the perspective of practically all the news flowing in and out of the Third World reflects the personality, preferences and the needs of the Western media.

This is what developing country leaders generally refer to as the "one-way flow" of news. "Why should we," asks Luis

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Asian newspapers and the Ford Foundation in March 1967 to promote development journalism by using a news agency, DEPTHnews (an acronym for development, economics and population theme concentrating on in-depth reporting) as a training organization. Soon, PFA's 200 outlets were turning out seven additional editions of DEPTHnews in different Asian languages, a pictorial edition, and a weekly reference bulletin *(Data for Decision)*.

In short, development journalism was initiated by journalists and funded by non-government contributors to insure that the development story was covered in depth, but in language simple enough for all to understand.

In the early 1970s, however, as Third World governments grasped the potential of development journalism for promoting their ideologies and campaigns, the term "development communication" came to signify a commitment to covering a nation's problems systematically. It was also broadened to include all communication "applied to the speedy transformation of a country from poverty to a dynamic state of economic growth that makes possible greater economic social equality and the larger fulfillment of the human potential."

Various government ministries, supported by the United Nations and other international agencies, encouraged the creation of integrated national communication policies for tackling problems of poverty, population, and health. International agency specialists spread the notions of development communication and development-supportive communication throughout the Third World.

Government Relationships

Governments soon realized that if media were to be used to implement national development strategies, then the authorities had to control the media. Some thus issued more subtle media guidelines and redefined traditional ideas of democracy and press freedom. Naturally, two value systems hit head on. In the traditional one, the press hounds government and supervises the public good; in the newer one, the press defers to authority and becomes a tool for national development.

Caught in this clash of values, some Third World leaders claim that a press that questions or hampers their efforts to promote national unity and well-being is irresponsible. They argue that in a developing nation preserving press freedom is less important than satisfying needs for food, shelter, and health. Or they say that developing nations face internal and external threats to stability that make Western-style press freedom inappropriate. Others hold that investigative and critical journalism as practiced in the West is incompatible with Third World customs such as respect for authority.

Rising Authoritarianism

Development journalism has grown up at a time when authoritarian tendencies in the Third World are gathering force. One dominant trend is toward centralized government, with one person rule and in-family power concentrations. Under political pressure, these rulers simply shuffle aside constitutional guarantees by issuing emergency or martial law decrees.

As governments promulgate and alter press laws, suspend newspapers and arrest journalists, take possession or control of ever more media, and limit what foreign correspondents can see and write about, maintaining an independent press becomes virtually impossible. For example, the licensing of newspapers has become the norm in many parts of Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean. In most of the Caribbean, press conferences are nearly non-existent. In one Middle-Eastern country, private citizens must secure government consent before granting interviews.

Newspapers and other media are joining broadcasting as government properties; as of late 1975 there were only two dailies in East and Central Africa in private hands. Asian and African nations are also taking possession or control of news services. In most Asian countries, one national news service, often government owned and controlled, screens all domestic and foreign news. In some nations with more than one news service, governments urge agencies to merge for easier scrutiny. In early 1976, the four major agencies of India were merged; the South Korean government in 1974 combined three major services in Seoul; and the government-owned news services of the two Vietnams merged after 1975.

Bent on creating favorable international impressions, many Third World countries have begun to pay closer attention to the foreign correspondents in their midst — chastizing them for screening developing nations' events through Western eyes, favoring those who approve of local governmental policies, and punishing those who do not. Penalties include stiffer entrance requirements, denial of access to newsworthy persons and events, pre-publication censorship, and expulsion.

The reasoning given by Third World leaders for these actions has been that the much touted free flow of information has become a one-way movement. At the New Delhi meeting of information ministers from non-aligned nations in July 1976, these leaders contended that "the majority of countries are reduced to being passive recipients of biased, inadequate and distorted information."

Promoting National Ideologies and Campaigns

Of the Third World nations that use the media to propagate national ideologies and campaigns, some look to China as a model. Others develop their own strategies and techniques, sometimes promoting a general ideological campaign and sometimes enlisting the media to support specific short-term programs.

In Malaysia, for example, mass media are implored to promote goals written into the Second and Third Malaysia Plans and the *Rukunegara* (National Ideology). Malaysian mass media do little investigative reporting, print government speeches and press releases verbatim, and ignore opposition. According to one researcher, the largest dailies devote between 32 and 52 percent of their content to national development. Similarly, newspapers in Singapore uncover elements the government deems subversive but refrain from investigating matters potentially embarrassing to the leadership.

Role of International Organizations

The major impetus for adopting development communication and national communication policies has come from supranational agencies, chiefly UNESCO. At a 1971 UNESCO meeting in Paris, it was proposed that a national communication policy council made of opinion leaders be formed in each country as a first step toward creating communication-planning units. With efficiency as its rationale, UNESCO hoped that all national communication planning systematically would begin to promote planned educational and social change, with UNESCO serving as the "coordinating agent, free of political or commercial taint, at the planning and research level."

UNESCO's philosophy has taken a beating since 1975 by such advocates and monitors of press freedom as the International Press Institute (IPI), Inter-American Press Association (IAPA), Freedom House and La Fédération des Editeurs des Journaux et Publications. In particular, the IAPA attacked UNESCO for inducing governments to tighten their media control, while Freedom House came down hard on UNESCO's stand on development journalism, claiming that the latter "distorts and exploits the thoroughly laudable goals of economic, political and educational development."

The testing ground for the implementation of the UNESCO model of national communication policies became Latin America. In July 1974, 16 experts on communication policies in Latin America who met in Bogotá concluded that freedom of expression, when "closely and especially linked to free enterprise," constitutes a social imbalance; commercially-owned media impose alien cultural traits or conformity, the experts maintained, and both impede social change. The key recommendation of the Bogotá conferees was that formulating national communication policies "should be the exclusive concern of the State, acting as it does on behalf of

the national community." A year later in Quito, another UNESCO group called upon Latin American governments to insure, among other things, that government-controlled national news agencies would be "exclusively empowered" to disseminate all outside news that referred to internal affairs.

When the findings of these conferences were disclosed, UNESCO officials insisted that the agency was impartial on the role of mass media, that it only attempted to point out trends and to offer alternatives. Others such as former UNESCO Director of Public Information Joel Blocker, however, thought that UNESCO was taking a new direction — a politicized one — under Director-General Amadou Mahtar M'Bow.

Some Latin American governments adopted the ideas that surfaced at the conferences. For example, Mexico has established a Central Communication Office whose aim is "to nationalize public opinion"; the Costa Rican legislature is considering a law to establish the state's right to regulate media as a public service.

At another UNESCO-sponsored conference held in Paris in December 1975, a draft resolution entitled "Draft Declaration on Fundamental Principles Governing the Use of Mass Media in Strengthening Peace and International Understanding and in Combatting War, Propaganda, Racism and Apartheid" was prepared. At the meeting, a paragraph of the 1948 United Nations "Universal Declaration of Human Rights" that placed international media under the protection of "relevant international agreements" was replaced by a clause that makes individual states themselves responsible "for all mass media under their jurisdiction."

Meanwhile, the IAPA denounced the UNESCO recommendations as "totalitarian" at its mid-1976 session in Aruba. Simultaneously, the IAPA and the Inter-American Broadcasters Association issued a joint protest.

In response to this criticism, the UNESCO Secretariat announced that its purpose was to discuss measures to make information flow out of as well as into developing nations. But at a meeting of 21 nations held in Costa Rica in July of 1976, some communications experts called for the creation of government-run news agencies "exclusively empowered" to disseminate information from abroad; the enactment of measures permitting arrests of international press representatives whose papers or news services publish criticism of the host country; and the nationalization of independent news media. The major thrust of the 32 draft resolutions drawn up in Costa Rica was to reduce the region's dependency on information and entertainment generated by a few wealthy nations: one resolution reiterated the call for a Latin American and Caribbean news agency and pool; another held that the content of news dispatches received by satellite should be limited.

The criticism to the contrary, development communication as UNESCO envisioned it had gathered momentum by 1976. Groups such as AMIC in Singapore and the East-West Communication Institute in Honolulu lent research, planning, and supervision support to UNESCO. Funding agencies for Third World projects seemed to acquiesce to the new thinking, while non-aligned nations met in New Delhi and Colombo to develop a Third World newspool.

When UNESCO held its nineteenth General Conference in Nairobi in late 1976, many of the resolutions that emerged at the Latin American conferences and at the non-aligned summit were on the agenda. The most controversial item was still the "Declaration on Fundamental Principles Governing the Use of the Mass Media," which was tabled when Western nations and the Soviet bloc reached an impasse on the issue.

Conclusion

As development communication becomes more solidly fixed in Third World nations, many questions require answers. Traditional concepts of press freedom have clearly changed. Some governments have promised to expand freedom of expression once their nations reach their development goals. But who decides whether a nation has reached such goals? Will rulers once exempt from criticism ever allow the media to criticize them constructively? And even if the rulers do eventually permit criticism, will the media be prepared and bold enough to accept the challenge after years of guidance and self-restraint? Then, too, we must ask if the media are promoting the development programs or the personalities and campaigns of the officials behind them? What impact can messages disseminated by government media have in the many Third World countries where people have grown suspicious of officialdom? If the critical function of the mass media has been stifled, can government and the public still distinguish sound and useful ideologies and campaigns from vague and useless ones?

Still other questions on the role of international agencies in setting development communication priorities are in order. Are such organizations practicing cultural imperialism as they try to integrate communication policies in nations with very diverse traditions? Will image-conscious supranational organizations find themselves overwhelmed by pressure in some developing countries? As the Third World countries nationalize their mass media, will the UNESCO panels of experts be made up increasingly of government media personnel?

These and other questions must be answered soon if the Orwellian tendencies taking hold in much of the world — tendencies toward the establishment of national communication policies to promote national ideologies, toward the redefinition of press freedom, democracy, and the free flow of information, and toward the homogenization of communications policies and programs — are to be reversed.

■ *John A. Lent is Professor of Communications at Temple University. An expanded version of this article is scheduled for publication later this year in* Index on Censorship.

A Third World View (Continued)

Penalver, Venezuela's Minister of Information, "rely exclusively on foreign news sources, which represent powerful economic interests, to hear about our own neighbors?" Developing countries want to establish a counterflow of world news with a Third World perspective which need not, and should not, be an official one.

When Third World leaders criticize the Western press for biased and distorted reporting, they are not, generally speaking, questioning the factual accuracy of Western news agencies or their correspondents. What they feel chagrined about is the lack of a Third World perspective, as well as appreciation of the Third World information needs, in the news disseminated by the Western news agencies.

Distortion does not necessarily mean a false presentation of events but rather an arbitrary selection and a slanted evaluation of reality, says Juan Somavia, Director of the Latin American Institute for Transnational Studies in Mexico City. The alleged objectivity of news presentation, according to him, is belied by an arbitrary use of language, overemphasis on events of no real importance, and the general practice of "making news" by presenting "isolated facts as a nonexistent whole."

Pressed by the limitation of space and of time, Western correspondents tend to select only the news that they think is of interest to their readers/subscribers in the industrialized countries either because it is "sensational" or deals with something "strange or exotic." Wars, disasters, famine, riots and political and military intrigues do make better copy than economic development. In this process, the information needs of the Third World are either forgotten or are given very short shrift.

For example, Tanzania's efforts to build up a national cadre of secondary school teachers may not be "sexy" enough for the Western media, but it represents a model to many developing countries suffering from similar problems. This kind of news also shows a certain kind of movement on the development front in the Third World.

"If Swaziland implements a successful new system for irrigating orange groves, we'd like to hear about it," stresses Adnan Zmerli, Tunisia's representative to the Paris-based UNESCO, voicing a sentiment commonly expressed by Third World countries. "We also want to know what is happening in Kenya — not just what goes on in Paris, Washington and Moscow."

Some Western correspondents and commentators have erroneously equated the increasing Third World demand for development-oriented news with that for government-controlled news and information. Development-oriented news is also not identical with "good" news, the lack of which is constantly bewailed by government leaders in the Western world. Development journalism, a relatively new genre of reporting in the Third World, is not much different from what usually appears in Western newspapers in community or general news sections. But an international counterpart of community news is missing from Western media files.

Development journalism should also not be confused with Development Support Communication (DSC) programs which utilize various media — not just mass but any media — for promoting economic and social development. Dr. Paul Fisher, Director of the Freedom of Information Center, Columbia, Missouri, is probably referring to the DSC phenomenon when he says: "There is a tendency among leaders of developing countries to favor the views of technicians and specialists who see communication as a tool to achieve certain goals. They are talking about using journalism, using communication, to predetermined ends."

The information needs of the Third World are either forgotten or are given very short shrift.

Although Dr. Fisher's evaluation is accurate, his inferential criticism and apprehensions are misplaced. There is nothing Machiavellian or alarming in developing countries' desire to use communication for furthering economic and social development. The problem arises when the distinction between development communication (primarily a government activity planned and carried out as part of a country's national development program) and the news media (whose effectiveness as a DSC component is inversely related to the degree of government intervention) is blurred. To most Third World leaders, information and communication are synonymous and interchangeable; hence, both are subject to government influence and direction.

Some of the more extreme proposals for media control, such as those calling for "the imprisonment of foreign correspondents who insult or misrepresent host countries" or "licensing of journalists" are merely a reflection of the tremendous frustration which Third World leaders feel about domestic as well as foreign media. It is not difficult to understand. After all, it was not very long ago that some of the top government leaders in a major Western country, besieged by unrelentingly critical media, were questioning the credentials of nationally-known news commentators to analyze and criticize government actions in the name of the general public.

This is not to minimize the danger, in my personal view, of the growing trend in the Third World toward direct government control of news media. The danger is accentuated by the need for government

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When Third World leaders criticize the Western press for biased and distorted reporting, they are not questioning the factual accuracy of Western news agencies.

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subsidy of a national news agency, particularly in the first few years of its operation, in developing countries. But a government-subsidized agency does not necessarily have to be government-controlled. The possibility, as well as the level, of official intervention in the operations of a news agency depends very much on the political philosophy and survival needs of those in power. There is also the fear that a national news agency, in the absence of competition, may willy-nilly become a purveyor of official news. To some extent, it is a justifiable apprehension, but it need not always come true. After all, most developed countries, including Britain and France, have only one national news agency covering the domestic scene, but nobody accuses them of being official spokesmen.

Few developing countries will agree with the statement attributed to an African diplomat in Nairobi that "we do not want Western journalists in our countries. They should take their news from us." Among those who advocate the institution of a code of social conduct and professional responsibility for news correspondents and call for establishment of a Third World news agency, many are quick to disown any idea of government control over the media. Many others defend the need for such government control "only at the present stage of their national development" and "to check the externally-funded forces of political and social disequilibrium."

"We are not," says Somavia, who is an ardent critic of the Western media, "advocating government control over the agencies' news flow. We are against the ethnocentric monopoly of news flows." The same view is voiced by Chakravarti Raghavan, former chief editor of the Press Trust of India, who contends that national news agencies and the proposed Third World news agency should be "free of governmental or bureaucratic control, direct or indirect . . . [and should be run] professionally in such a manner that they evoke respect for their professional competence, integrity and credibility. They should not be vehicles of propaganda."

A vital element favoring the ultimate evolution of an independent Third World news agency is the heterogeneous nature of the Third World group. They do not constitute a monolithic, ideological bloc. Developing countries suffer from mutual rivalries, political as well as economic. In such an environment, a multinational Third World news agency, not free from government intervention, will founder because of conflicting national pressures. It will not succeed because governments will be adverse to using or propagating material put out by an international agency which is nothing more than a vehicle for distributing official handouts across the border.

Western countries and communication media can be of immense help not only by providing equipment for national news agencies in developing countries but also by assisting them in working out a mechanism for a freer exchange of information about each other. Perhaps a team of media experts (journalists and not professional communicators or government officials) from developing countries could be set up to prepare a model, together with a charter of duties and responsibilities, of the proposed Third World news agency. Organizations such as the Press Foundation of Asia could be assisted in training development journalists and in instituting seminars and workshops for senior-level news personnel to bring home to them the need for assigning necessary weight to development factors in grading day-to-day news. Journalism schools in Western countries could also be persuaded to include development news in their curricula and training programs.

Once the Third World countries are convinced that their information needs are being met by Western as well as by national and the proposed Third World news agencies, their antagonism toward journalists, both domestic and foreign, may soften into a reluctant tolerance. Only then are the developing countries likely to be more receptive to considering alternatives to the deferred proposal on mass media. Then too will they be in a better mood to cooperate in working out a declaration, for presentation to the biennial UNESCO General Conference in 1978, which will provide for a "free flow" of news not only with a Western but a Third World perspective as well.

Narinder Aggarwala, an Indian journalist, is working with the United Nations Development Programme as Regional Information Officer for Asia and the Pacific. This article originally appeared in The Interdependent.

Training for Trainers

What happens when the traditional academic format is abandoned in favor of a participatory workshop? According to J.G. Bird of Hawkesbury Agricultural College, the Graduate Diploma in Extension was designed to find out.

Those interested in this program for the development of professionals who are themselves concerned with staff training should contact Robert Macadam, Hawkesbury Agricultural College, Richmond, N.S.W. 2753, Australia.

Case Studies on Radio

The World Bank has just released *Radio for Education and Development: Case Studies*, two volumes on the use of radio in development. The compendium contains case studies of projects and general papers on planning radio's use. The reviews, many of which were previously published, cover projects that involve in-school education, non-formal education, and interactive development communication. In addition, a paper on technical and economic considerations in planning radio projects is included.

Part One, "Radio for In-School Education," contains articles on the Radio Mathematics Project in Nicaragua, the Mexican radio schools of Tarahumara, and the Mexican Radio Primaria Project. One article discusses a planning study of the potential of radio's use in Indonesia and discusses how studies can best utilize evaluative information.

The second section of Volume One, "Radio for Distance Learning," describes teacher training through radio and correspondence in Kenya and the Radio Santa Maria Model in the Dominican Republic.

Volume Two begins with five chapters on radio for non-formal education. Case studies of the radio movement in the Honduras, the Tanzanian National Radio Study campaigns, and Senegal's radio pilot project are followed by two chapters on open-broadcast educational radio and radio forums. Two papers on radio as used in development communications cover radio use in the Canadian North and interactive radio for health care and education in Alaska. The final chapter of Volume Two discusses technical and economic factors in planning radio services. The various options available are presented in light of specific goals (effects on radio audience, development objectives, etc.), constraints, and other variables.

Radio for Education and Development: Case Studies provides all interested in employing radio with timely facts and a sound overview of the field. Reprints of individual papers may be obtained by writing Dean Jamison, The World Bank, 1818 H Street, N.W., Wash., D.C. 20433. ■ A.G.

Folk Opera

Emmanuel Tettey of the Ghana Broadcasting Division advocates using opera to educate rural audiences in Ghana and other countries. Noting that storytelling is a "fundamental form of dramatic pastime found in every village," Mr. Tettey suggests that the same techniques developed to teach children morals and tribal traditions could be used to educate the masses, especially illiterates. "The talented storyteller . . . mimics, sings and dances around the fire to entertain (the children) before they go to sleep . . . The children participate in these songs and dances and in time grow to take over from the old storyteller.

Tettey also notes that folk opera, even in as simple a form as storytelling, can serve as a forum for public opinion. Referring to the European composers of the 19th century who used opera to expound their ideas of humanism and to urge the masses to fight for justice and happiness, Tettey declares that "the democratic nature of opera and its ability to portray the most varied aspects of life . . . could contribute immensely towards the education of children as well as adults." ■ Nancy Radtke

Satellite Report

Demand for communication satellite equipment in developing countries is the subject of a recent study prepared by Frost and Sullivan, an international market-research firm. The report points out that while commercial satellite communication was in its infancy ten years ago, satellites are now an accepted medium for international communication. By 1990, it says, satellites are likely to be used by many developing countries for domestic and regional communication.

The report's writers foresee the expansion of enthusiasm and uses for satellites, particularly for thin-route telephony and educational broadcasting. They anticipate that several hundred thousand community receivers (of 2-to-4 meters in diameter each) will be in operation in developing countries by 1990.

Frost and Sullivan's survey examines the demand for satellite communication equipment within 106 developing countries from 1976 to 1990. It provides a useful summary of the current status of international, regional, and domestic communication satellite projects and of planned and proposed applications (including the use of marine and aeronautical satellites).

The report does, however, contain some inaccuracies related to recent satellite activities — probably because the information available to the researchers was based on plans that were modified as they were implemented. Unfortunately, much of the information is undated, the assumptions on which calculations of national demands are based are not stated, no references are given, and some shortcomings in the market projections limit their usefulness.

This report does not identify communication requirements other than those that have been formulated into satellite proposals or plans, and its country-demand projections for community receivers appear rather arbitrary and optimistic. Moreover, the researchers assume that all planned and proposed satellites will become operational on schedule; in fact, some proposals may be withdrawn, delayed, or modified.

Prepared primarily for use by suppliers of space-related communication equipment, this report is available for $850 from Frost and Sullivan, 106 Fulton Street, New York, New York 10038. ■ Heather Hudson

Radio Mathematics Project Receives Japan Prize

Lesson 171 of the Nicaraguan Radio Mathematics Project took top honors in the radio division of the 11th Japan Prize International Educational Program Contest on March 1 in Tokyo. *Proyecto Mathematica por Radio* was one of 166 programs that 92 broadcasting organizations from around the world entered in the biennial NHK-sponsored competition.

The prize-winning project relies heavily upon active student involvement. No less than twice a minute the math broadcaster invites the elementary-school audience to sing, exercise, stand up, clap, or write on cue. These spot activities reinforce the subject matter and keep student interest from flagging. Simple and random, they also allow slow learners plenty of opportunities to join the group. Often, a child need only stand up to catch up.

Another striking feature of the Radio Math Project is its relatively low cost per student. A radio, teachers' guides, worksheets, and simple cost-free counting aids like bottle caps are all teachers need to convert conventional classrooms into radio classrooms. Some experimental classrooms have even dispensed with worksheets, using blackboard exercises instead, to further shave costs.

The Radio Mathematics Project was designed cooperatively by the Nicaraguan Ministry of Education and Stanford University's Institute for Mathematical Studies in the Social Sciences (IMSSS). With financial backing from the Technical Assistance Bureau of the U.S. Agency for International Development, the two set out in 1973 to upgrade and vitalize math instruction for first and second graders.

Preliminary results bode well for the future of Radio Mathematics. The students in radio classrooms seem to remain attentive for the full thirty minutes each radio lesson runs and to listen as raptly to the instructional segments as to the entertainment portions of each broadcast. In addition, two series of year-end tests showed that first-graders in classrooms in which radio programming was used in concert with related teacher-led activities learned more than their peers in traditional classrooms did.

The staff of the Radio Math Project intends to publish further findings at the end of each school year. A summary of the project's first two years of operation has already been released; *The Radio Mathematics Project: Nicaragua 1974-1975* by Barbara Searle, Jamesine Friend, and Patrick Suppes is available for $5.50 (including postage and handling) from the IMSSS, Ventura Hall, Stanford University, Stanford, California 93405. Further information can be obtained from Dr. Searle at the same address. ■ K.C.

SITE in India: High Learning Gains, Low Overhead

Professor Vijaya Mulay, Principal of the Indian Center for Educational Technology in New Delhi, and Professor Snehlata Shukla, her assistant, visited the Clearinghouse while in Washington in May.

They discussed the teacher-education program that their center developed to tie in with SITE. The following article was drawn largely from that interview.

On August 1, 1975, India began a unique experiment in development communication using the satellite, to date largely a commercial medium, to broadcast television in a variety of development projects. The NASA-launched ATS-6 satellite had been lent to India for one year to facilitate the Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE).

Reaching 2,400 villages in six of India's 22 states, SITE was aimed from the outset at the country's hard-to-reach rural population. Thus, the areas selected for participation were some of the most backward. Many of the villages had no electricity, so battery-powered receivers had to be installed.

The objectives of the experiment were to test the country's ability to produce and utilize instructional television designed to cover agriculture, health, family planning, primary education, teacher training, and community development. All of the ground material — from electronic hardware to program software — was generated by the Indian people.

Anticipating the day when ATS-6 would be positioned over India, the Center for Educational Technology (CET) planned a program that would use the satellite to train teachers who would be involved in the year-long satellite experiment. A model using broadcast television was designed to improve the skills of primary school science teachers. Employed twice with success, it will be used again later this year. However, in the absence of satellite capacity, film will substitute for the broadcast component in villages not reached by national television.

In its first application, the program reached 24,000 teachers. Combining some established methods with some novel ones, it moved expertise outward in concentric waves from the educational technology center via a core of six highly skilled pedagogues. These educators trained 60 science resource people who in turn ran a series of eight or nine training camps in each of the six SITE states, versed groups of teacher-monitors in scientific methods, and introduced them to experiments. Finally, these teacher-monitors took up stations in each of the 2,400 teacher-training villages — during 15-day training sessions — to pass on a systematic approach to investigating and solving scientific problems. The monitors also encouraged rural teachers to conduct simple tests.

The CET decided on the program's objectives early and drew on the expertise of the National Center for Educational Research and Training to draw up a curriculum. Fourteen 22-minute television programs and printed supporting materials were subsequently produced.

The television programs formed the base of the five-hour training day. Teacher-monitors led discussions after the broadcasts to reinforce content and methodology. A subsequent two-and-a-half hours were given over to experimentation — emphasized because rural teachers, unfamiliar with experimentation, are reluctant to risk losing face by publicly carrying out experiments that could fail.

Feedback was an ancillary component of the SITE teacher-training model. Teacher comments were recorded and sent in to the broadcast center. Professionals edited their observations and broadcast them via radio during the training sessions.

According to Professors Mulay and Shukla, CET's effort was the first made in India to train teachers systematically by zeroing in on three overriding objectives — improving the content of science teaching, introducing the scientific method, and encouraging classroom experimentation. Those involved in the program made a concerted effort to show that the scientific method — described as observing the facts, framing a problem, systematizing knowledge, finding the possible causes and solutions to the problem, testing the possibilities, and coming to a solution — works in any setting. The two center directors recall seeing a teacher use a playground object to teach the international standard unit of measurement and hope to prompt Indian teachers to seize such everyday opportunities to enrich their instruction.

Professor Shukla's evaluation reports a 40-percent gain in teacher expertise — a combined score that reflects gains in knowledge of science and pedagogy. The report also shows that graduates are conducting more experiments and bringing more materials into their science classes — though many still do not adequately involve students in classroom experiments.

Some of the accomplishments of this approach to training rural teachers on site were hard bought, and the obstacles to success were many. Programs and materials had to be prepared in many languages. Power shut-downs interrupted progress and television succumbed to the rigors of heat, humidity, and dust. Then too, the villagers involved were dealing with sophisticated technology for the first time.

A planned follow-up to the training sessions will draw from the teachers not only their reactions to curriculum experiments, but also their suggestions for alterations. Since many teachers have contacted CET on their own, they are likely to cooperate in such a program. During the SITE project, even poorly paid rural teachers spent time and money mailing descriptions of their teaching problems and asking for the Center's help. The CET maintains contact with teachers who have gone through the training institute so that their feedback will enrich future programs. The Center also hopes to stimulate graduates of past programs to continue to sharpen their powers of observation and problem-solving.

The ATS-6 is the sixth and last in a series of American satellites designed to test, among other things, educational broadcasting to dispersed rural populations. Thus, it is an example of high technology whose use appears appropriate in certain areas and under certain circumstances in the developing world. Although the satellite itself is sophisticated and costly, it casts beams directly to individual television receivers equipped simply with enlarged antennas that consist of easy-to-make 10-foot discs of wire mesh. In addition, the ATS-6 carries a larger number of solar panels and generates a higher power signal than did earlier satellites. As a result, relatively simple and low-powered ground stations can receive its signal. The costs of such ground stations can be kept low. In India, each station cost an estimated $1,100.

Reports on the long-term effects of the SITE program are beginning to emerge, according to Professors Mulay and Shukla. The Center of Educational Research and Training will publish its findings on language development as well as on attitudes toward and behavior in school before, during, and after SITE. Other reports by anthropologists who took up residence in selected villages a few months before SITE and who stayed on several months after the end of the experiment will assess cultural changes brought on by the satellite experiment. Preliminary findings, for example, show changed patterns of interaction among castes: in order to be within eye-shot of the television screen, people from different castes who had never been at close proximity before sat next to one another. Records showed a 30-percent increase in children's attendance at school. During SITE, children saw educational programs during the morning hours. Adults, when polled, said they preferred instructional programming to entertainment. They said their after-work time is too valuable to spend on programs that teach them little.

When the satellite experiment ended in July of 1976, ATS-6 moved away from its station over India. In October, without the outreach potential of satellite communication, the model will reach a teacher-training target audience only one-fourth its former size — about 6,000 teachers. Continued testing and improvement of the present approach, however, is meant to evolve a more efficient system for use in 1980, when India hopes to launch its own satellite. ■ J.M.

Dilemmas (Continued)

battle to get a larger share of the national budget. Joint programs would have been difficult even to discuss in such a setting.

3. As political appointees, ministers were perpetually jockeying for power and competing for the President's favor. If the President showed no interest in the joint project, the ministers had no incentive to take political risks.

4. The proposed coordination might weaken the Minister of Education's authority and that of rural teachers working with agricultural agents.

5. The plan called for the cooperation of personnel from two different civil service systems with differing pay scales, work hours, and promotion policies.

6. Sharing educational TV resources would have intruded into the Ministry of Education's jurisdiction another echelon of Ministry of Agriculture TV-Programmers and production staff, which might have weakened the Ministry of Education's power. Moreover, responsibility for purchasing and repairing the TV sets would be hard to distribute between ministries.

7. The Minister did not seem to believe that primary education could be made to affect the quality of rural children's lives. As he no doubt saw it, the main purpose of primary schools was to discover at an early age those who could profit from further education (i.e., to identify future Einsteins) and to encourage them to migrate to the cities.

8. The Minister felt that combining adult rural centers with primary schools would create distractions in the classrooms.

9. The Minister foresaw major problems in having separate curricula for urban and rural children.

10. In rural areas, extension agents of the Ministry of Agriculture are usually better-established and more influential than school teachers. In a cooperative program, the extension agents might well come to dominate areas now under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education.

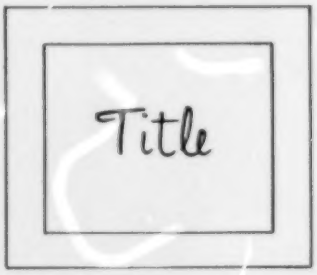
With some misgivings, the planning team did ultimately recommend that a non-integrated primary school project be approved. It was also able to elicit limited cooperation from the lower levels of the Ministry of Agriculture.

Thus schooled in the anatomy of a bureaucracy, the planning team arrived at three conclusions. First, in some countries the impetus for large-scale integrated programs must come from a level of government above that of the agencies in charge of the traditional sectors. Second, those evaluating future rural development projects must scrutinize the history of cooperation (or noncooperation) between agencies engaged in rural work. Last, the nature of bureaucracies, even those in technologically advanced countries, is such that coordination raises many real problems often unperceived by those who are too quick to extol the virtues of cooperation.

Cheap & Easy

TITLE SLIDES

This is a way to liven up your title slides when you don't have a photo studio or a graphics laboratory.



Materials Needed:

camera
tripod
color slide film
crayons (any or all colors)
iron or dry mount press
laminating film
white or colored paper
razor blade
lettering set

Lindy Layer

- Shave crayons onto paper. The thin pieces can form a shape or design. Use as many and whatever colors you like.
- Place laminating film over paper with crayon pieces.
- a. Place iron on top of laminating film and paper to melt crayons (the longer the heat remains, the farther the color will spread).
  b. Place in dry mount press for five seconds.

You now have a graphic. You can handletter onto the graphic or use stencils or press type, etc., to finish off your slide flat.

- Place graphic on floor or wall.
- Set up camera on tripod (Instamatics are fine as they are great cameras for close-up photos).
- Shoot graphic.
- Poof! A full color title slide!

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Participatory Research Project

Key researchers involved in a project to investigate alternative methods of research in adult education will attend an August meeting sponsored by the International Council for Adult Education.

Budd Hall of ICAE outlines the objectives of the unconventional research effort as the identification of practical and theoretical problem areas, the production of guidelines for those interested in work of this kind, the analysis of experience and literature in this new field, and the extension of the theoretical framework within which such efforts will take place.

The primary objective, according to Hall, is to involve the poorest groups or classes in the analysis of their own needs. This goal was formed in response to strident criticism of social science research methods that place researchers in the roles of outside agents.

The informal research network, backed by funds from the Hazen Foundation, already includes 80-100 people who have volunteered to circulate materials to practitioners and to put other people in the field in touch with each other. Regional teams are now being formed in North America, Europe, Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

Contributions of materials, ideas, case studies, and reactions are invited. Write Budd L. Hall, ICAE, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Canada M5S 1V6.

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Readers are invited to submit typed manuscripts of no more than 1000 words and photographs.

Dilemmas in Country X: Candid discussions about failures

Second in a series of articles on what went wrong and why in specific development efforts, the following is a sketch of a high-level bureaucratic impasse that affected the work of a team of educational planners. A portrait of a stalemate that was skirted but never resolved, this "dilemma" was submitted by Dr. Howard Leavitt of the International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET) in Washington, D.C.

(The editor invites readers to submit reports for this column. Authors' names — as well as those of the people, agencies, and countries involved in the projects — will be withheld upon request.)

Should international funds be used to construct rural primary schools and programs in Country X? This was the question that a team of educational planners sought to answer in a small, less developed country where rural-urban migration and urban unemployment rates were high and where social services were seriously overtaxed.

This country's rural schools were plainly inadequate. Teachers were unqualified. Disintegrating one-and-two-room school buildings were dark and poorly ventilated. Rote-memory learning and an urban-oriented curriculum seemed ill-suited to rural life. Not surprisingly, in some schools the drop-out rate approached 100 percent by the third grade.

Why did parents bother to send their children to such schools? Of the many answers teachers and parents gave the planning team, the most common was "to give a child a fighting chance of moving to and succeeding in the city." Although most parents were realistic about the odds that their children would follow such a path, all had heard of academic miracles. Few parents could thus abandon the hope that their child would someday send money back to the farm or perhaps even pave the way for the whole family's move to the city.

Under such circumstances, the team wanted to find out whether building simple but modern primary schools, upgrading the skills of rural teachers, and providing a curriculum tailored to rural needs represented wise investments. Would, moreover, extending educational television to country schools prove feasible and cost-effective? Or would the use of TV simply speed up rural-urban migration?

The planning team knew that projects involving the construction of rural primary schools in other countries had met with mixed success. Such schools had turned out to be expensive to maintain and difficult to staff with good teachers. Then too, effective classroom materials had sometimes been hard to find. Worse, better attendance, increased enrollment, and a lower drop-out rate had often merely meant stepped-up migration to the city. But the government in Country X was being pressured to address the problems of rural development, and the Ministry of Education was consequently being pressed to improve and expand rural education.

Before attempting to answer the questions raised by this project, the planning team identified all the government-sponsored activities designed to improve rural life. It discovered that the Ministry of Agriculture was developing an ambitious plan to build a network of rural training centers at which adults and out-of-school youth would be taught such subjects as home economics, nutrition, the repair of farm implements, agriculture, and family-planning techniques. Such Centers would also serve as headquarters for an expanded corps of agricultural extension agents.

The advantages of linking the rural training centers to the primary school programs seemed obvious. With proper planning both might utilize the same building, the same equipment, and perhaps even the same demonstration gardens. In addition, new uses of educational television for adults might justify the inclusion of ETV sets in the primary school program. More important, the team thought, was the possibility that students would be less likely to leave the land when they could see that their parents were learning new ways of making rural life more satisfying.

The possibility of establishing a joint program was discussed with middle-level officials from the Ministries of Agriculture and Education, who, aware of the advantages of cooperation, were enthusiastic. But when the planning team presented a rough outline of the plan to the Minister of Education, he politely but firmly vetoed the idea. When pressed, he conceded that he and the Minister of Agriculture were political enemies and that undertaking a joint project would only exacerbate the already overwhelming problems of running a single Ministry. When the team protested that technical assistance could be provided to facilitate coordination, the Minister insisted that nothing short of a Presidential order would change his mind.

To find out why the Minister refused to cooperate, the planning team sought inside help from a sympathetic mid-level official at the Ministry of Education who knew personally both the Minister and the inner workings of the bureaucracy. Out of this dialogue came the following points:

1. The ministries in Country X are, typically enough, as politically sensitive as they are unwieldy. The Minister of Education was speaking in the name of a ponderous, semi-autonomous organization over which he actually exerted only marginal control; he probably believed that meshing even a small part of his ministry with another would cause insuperable problems.

2. The Ministers of Education and Agriculture annually locked horns in the

(Continued on page 7)

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Project Profiles, a series of brief descriptions of development projects that make systematic use of media, are available at no cost from the Clearinghouse. Produced in loose-leaf form, the two-page profiles are issued quarterly in sets of eight. A subscription to the series can be obtained by writing to Alexander Greeley at the Clearinghouse.